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From unburnt to salvage logged: quantifying bird responses to different levels of disturbance severity

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22 **ABSTRACT**

- 23 1. Forests worldwide are increasingly subject to natural and human disturbances,
24 including wildfires and logging of varying intensity and frequency. Understanding
25 how biodiversity responds to different kinds and combinations of natural and human
26 disturbance is critical to enhanced forest management.
- 27 2. We completed an eight-year study of bird responses across a spectrum of disturbance
28 types in Australian Mountain Ash (*Eucalyptus regnans*) forests following wildfires in
29 2009.
- 30 3. We found evidence of a gradient in bird species richness over the study duration. It
31 was highest in unlogged and unburned (least disturbed) sites, decreasing through
32 burnt unlogged forest (subject to high or low intensity fire), lower still in logged
33 forest, and lowest in the most disturbed sites (subject to salvage logging without
34 island retention). Retention of uncut islands within logged areas increased bird species
35 richness above that found in areas that had been clearcut.
- 36 4. The greatest rate of increase per year after disturbance in bird species richness was on
37 sites burnt by high severity fire but which were not subject to any form of logging.
38 The level of disturbance affected the composition of the bird assemblage. Sites that
39 were unlogged and unburned were more likely to support species that were larger,
40 more mobile, and nested at greater heights above the ground.
- 41 5. *Synthesis and applications.* All forms of logging on burned sites impaired recovery in
42 bird species richness relative to sites subject to high severity fire. Alterations in stand
43 structure and plant species composition (and hence modification in bird habitat
44 suitability) due to logging are the most likely reasons for reduced bird species
45 richness and delayed patterns of recovery. This study highlights the importance for
46 native bird species of retaining patches of unlogged forest not only within otherwise

47 clearcut forest, but also in areas that are burned and subject to salvage logging. We
48 therefore suggest that the adoption of retention harvesting be expanded to include
49 stands disturbed by wildfires.

50 **KEYWORDS:** forest birds, Mountain Ash, natural disturbance, salvage logging, south-
51 eastern Australia, variable retention harvest systems, wildfire, fire, species richness

52

53 INTRODUCTION

54 Disturbances such as fire, windstorms and floods can have a major influence on both
55 natural and human-modified ecosystems and affect the abundance and diversity of species,
56 nutrient and energy cycling, biomass accumulation, hydrological regimes and other key
57 ecosystem processes (Sousa 1984; Swanson *et al.* 2011; Fairman, Nitschke & Bennett 2016;
58 Pulsford, Lindenmayer & Driscoll 2016). The severity, intensity or frequency of natural
59 disturbance regimes can be altered directly and indirectly by human activities (Bradley,
60 Hanson & DellaSala 2016; Parisien *et al.* 2016) such as patterns of land use (Thompson,
61 Spies & Ganio 2007; Cochrane & Laurance 2008; Taylor, McCarthy & Lindenmayer 2014),
62 climate change (Westerling *et al.* 2006; Abatzoglou & Williams 2016) and the establishment
63 of invasive species (Setterfield *et al.* 2010; Johnstone *et al.* 2016; Jones *et al.* 2016). Thus,
64 there can be additive or interactive effects of human and natural disturbances in biodiversity
65 and key ecosystem processes (Buma 2015; Kishchuk *et al.* 2015; Lindenmayer, Thorn &
66 Banks 2017). Understanding how biodiversity responds to different combinations of
67 disturbances is critical to developing prescriptions that underpin the effective management of
68 natural resources (Frelich 2005; Driscoll *et al.* 2010; Leverkus & Castro 2017; Lindenmayer,
69 Thorn & Banks 2017).

70 A potentially severe form of perturbation in forests is salvage logging in which trees
71 damaged by natural disturbance are harvested in an attempt to recover some of their
72 economic value (Cobb *et al.* 2011; Fraver *et al.* 2017; Leverkus & Castro 2017). Salvage
73 logging is widespread and its use is increasing (Thorn *et al.* 2017), likely as a result of the
74 increase in large-scale intensive natural disturbances globally (Seidl *et al.* 2014). There has
75 also been a rapid increase in the number of studies of salvage logging but many lack data on
76 the effects of some important combinations of natural and human disturbance (D'Amato *et al.*
77 2011; Thorn *et al.* 2017; but see Cobb *et al.* 2011; Kishchuk *et al.* 2015). This includes

78 contrasts between salvage logged areas and places subject to conventional harvesting
79 methods such as clearcutting, but particularly lower intensity silvicultural systems like
80 variable retention harvesting (sensu Gustafsson *et al.* 2012; Fedrowitz *et al.* 2014).

81 Here we quantify the response of forest birds across a range of disturbance types,
82 resulting from fire, logging and a combination of both in the wet Mountain Ash (*Eucalyptus*
83 *regnans*) forests of the Central Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern Australia. Large areas of
84 the study region burned in wildfires in 2009. This event, coupled with subsequent post-fire
85 salvage logging operations and ongoing conventional clearcut logging in unburned forest,
86 provided a unique opportunity to establish a comparative study of disturbance effects (Fig. 1;
87 Table 1). Our study design included replicate sites that were: **(1)** unburned and unlogged, **(2)**
88 burned at low severity in 2009, **(3)** burned at high severity in 2009, **(4)** subject to
89 conventional clearcut logging operations (i.e. unburned stands were clearcut), **(5)** subject to
90 variable retention harvesting (in which islands of uncut green forest were retained within
91 cutblocks), **(6)** subject to conventional post-wildfire salvage logging, and, **(7)** had been
92 salvage logged but with burned islands of forest retained within the cut area (Fig. 1). This last
93 treatment was an extension of the island retention approach typically employed in
94 conventional green forest variable retention harvesting systems (Fedrowitz *et al.* 2014) but
95 applied in a salvage logging context. Our range of treatments therefore facilitated contrasts in
96 bird responses not only between conventional post-fire salvage logging and conventional
97 clearcut logging but also contrasts among sites where variable retention harvesting was
98 deployed in burned versus unburned forest. Our study design also enabled us to determine
99 whether the effects of salvage logging were more substantial than the effects of clearcut
100 logging alone plus the effects of high-severity fire alone. That is, in quantifying the effects of
101 salvage logging on bird biota, we sought evidence for both additive effects of high severity

102 fire and subsequent clearcut logging as well as interactive impacts (sensu Foster *et al.* 2016)
103 between these two kinds of disturbance.

104 We examined four components of bird response – bird species richness, the
105 composition of the bird assemblage, the occurrence of individual bird species, and bird life
106 history attributes (as part of testing performance filtering hypothesis and functional diversity
107 theory; (Mouillot *et al.* 2012; Aubin *et al.* 2016)). We motivated our investigation by posing
108 two key questions to quantify the three components of biotic response:

109 **Question 1.** *Are birds affected by different combinations of natural and human disturbance?*

110 At the outset of this investigation, we postulated that bird species richness and the detection
111 frequency of individual bird species would be lowest in areas subject to conventional salvage
112 logging and highest in unlogged and unburned sites (see Fig. 1). We also postulated that the
113 composition of the bird assemblage would vary between sites subject to different
114 disturbances with some kinds of species (characterized by particular life history traits) being
115 absent from intensively disturbed areas.

116 The broad focus of Question 1 was on cross-sectional contrasts in bird responses
117 between sites subject to different levels of disturbance severity. However, our work entailed
118 documenting changes in bird responses between 2009 and 2016, thereby providing an
119 opportunity to quantify **temporal** patterns on different kinds of sites. Hence, the second
120 question in our investigation was:

121 **Question 2.** *Does the temporal response of bird species richness and individual species vary*

122 *among sites subject to different kinds of disturbance?* We postulated that, relative to unlogged
123 and unburned sites, the recovery of bird species richness would be slowest in salvage logged
124 sites with no island retention that were those most heavily perturbed (Fig. 1). This was
125 because such sites lack critical structural elements (e.g. dead standing trees) and have the

126 most depauperate vegetation communities of all the forest stand categories that we studied
127 (Lindenmayer & Ough 2006; Blair et al. 2016). In our study, we used our unburnt and
128 unlogged sites as ‘benchmarks’ to evaluate the recovery of disturbed sites (Fig. 1). While a
129 small number of bird species in this forest appear to prefer early post-fire conditions (e.g. the
130 Flame Robin *Petroica phoenicea*; (Lindenmayer et al. 2014)), no species occurs exclusively
131 under early successional conditions so our unburnt and unlogged sites were considered an
132 appropriate benchmark for recovery of species richness.

133 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

134 ***Study area***

135 Our study area was the Mountain Ash forest in the Toolangi, Marysville and
136 Powelltown districts of the Central Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern Australia (Fig. 2).
137 Stand-replacing fire is one of the predominant forms of natural disturbance in Mountain Ash
138 forests leading to stands of broadly uniform age (Smith *et al.* 2016). We constrained our
139 study to one age class of forest – stands that were 70 years old at the time of the 2009
140 wildfires, having regenerated after previous wildfires in 1939. This was to avoid confounding
141 disturbance treatment effects with forest age effects given that different stand ages of
142 Mountain Ash forest support different faunal assemblages, including birds (Loyn 1985;
143 Lindenmayer *et al.* 2009). In addition, 1939 regrowth forest was the most extensive age class
144 in the Mountain Ash ecosystem at the time of the fires (Burns *et al.* 2015) and it is where
145 almost all timber harvesting activity presently takes place (Flint & Fagg 2007). Old growth
146 stands (which are excluded from logging) are now rare in Mountain Ash ecosystems and
147 constitute approximately 1.2% of the extent of this vegetation type in the Central Highlands
148 region of Victoria (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2012).

149 Our study included three levels of fire severity at a site as determined from on-the-
150 ground measurements of vegetation 1-2 months directly following the 2009 fire. Unburned
151 sites were those which were not subject to fire in 2009. Low severity sites were those where
152 the ground was damaged but the understorey and overstorey remained intact. High-severity
153 sites were those in which plants in the ground, shrub and understorey layers were killed and
154 crowns of overstorey trees consumed.

155 *Experimental design and disturbance classes for contrast*

156 The design for this study took advantage of three major studies that ran concurrently
157 from 2009-2016 in which the surveys for birds all employed broadly similar field sampling
158 protocols (by the same field researchers) (see below).

159 The first investigation was a long-term study of the occurrence of birds on sites that
160 were dominated by 1939 regrowth at the time of the 2009 fires. The study included sites
161 burned at high severity in the 2009 fires, sites burnt at low severity in 2009, and sites that
162 remained unburnt in 2009 (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2014) (Table 1).

163 Our second study was a blocked and replicated experiment designed specifically to
164 contrast vertebrate response (including birds) to variable retention harvesting (Lindenmayer
165 *et al.* 2015). The experiment comprised three key treatments in 1939 regrowth forest: **(1)**
166 unlogged forest, **(2)** forest subject to conventional clearcutting (i.e. no island retention), and
167 **(3)** forest subject to variable retention harvesting in which islands of unlogged forest were
168 retained. The treatments were implemented within an experimental block, with the blocking
169 structure replicated, giving a total of 15 sites (Table 1).

170 Our third study was a blocked and replicated salvage logging experiment initiated
171 immediately following the 2009 wildfires. It was designed to have broad parallels with the
172 experiment on variable retention harvesting, except in a post-fire logging setting. The salvage

173 logging experiment comprised 20 sites in three treatments: **(1)** burned but unlogged sites, **(2)**
174 conventionally salvage logged sites (with no stand retention), and **(3)** salvage logged areas
175 with island retention (Table 1).

176 In the case of salvage logged areas, all trees were killed by high-severity fire – in part
177 because salvage logging is restricted (by regulation and codes of practice) only to those areas
178 subject to very high-severity fire. In the case of conventionally clearcut areas, the only green
179 trees remaining within cutover areas are in the retention islands – all standing trees in the
180 remainder of the cutblock were logged (i.e. cut down). The size of conventionally logged and
181 salvage logged cutblocks varied from 15-40 ha (as per Codes of Practices in these forests).
182 The area of Mountain Ash forest burned in the 2009 fires exceeded 72 000 ha (Cruz *et al.*
183 2012).

184 ***Bird survey protocols***

185 We conducted bird surveys annually between 2009 and 2016 with surveys completed
186 in November/early December which is the breeding season for the majority of species and
187 when summer migrants have arrived. Our first surveys in 2009 occurred after disturbance by
188 fire or logging. Our standardised survey protocol was repeated five-minute point interval
189 counts (*sensu* Pyke & Recher 1983; Ralph, Sauer & Droege 1983). For all broad site types in
190 this study and in each year of sampling, we surveyed each site on two different days to
191 account for day effects (Field, Tyre & Possingham 2002). The count on the first day was
192 completed by a different observer than the count on the second day to account for observer
193 heterogeneity (Cunningham *et al.* 1999; Lindenmayer, Wood & MacGregor 2009). We
194 conducted surveys between sunrise and 9.30 am and did not complete counts on days of rain,
195 fog or high winds.

196 For the 54 sites within the long-term monitoring study, we established a 100 metre
197 transect with permanent plots at 0 m, 50 m and 100m points. We did not assume that
198 individual counts at the three points on the same site were independent. We limited our
199 surveys to birds detected within 50 m of a plot point on a given transect. This was to ensure
200 that the birds recorded were within the particular disturbed sampling unit in question.
201 Standardizing the size of the area sampled meant that it was possible to robustly compare
202 counts made across the different studies which together comprised our study (see below).

203 We also established permanent plots in the variable retention harvesting and salvage
204 logging experiments. The variable retention harvesting experiment entailed establishing a
205 permanent plot within a retention island with only birds recorded within 50 m of the centroid
206 of the plot to ensure that only individuals wholly within the island were counted. The islands
207 were a minimum of 50 metres apart (and separated by clearcut forest). There were three plots,
208 one for each of the three islands that had been retained on the cutblock. A similar protocol
209 was used for the salvage logging experiment in which three islands of uncut forest (which
210 had been burned in the preceding wildfire) were retained and a permanent plot was
211 established within each island. Again, only birds within 50 m of the centroid of the plot were
212 recorded to ensure that only individuals wholly within the island were counted. We did not
213 assume that individual counts at the plot points within a site were independent. For sites
214 subject to conventional clearcutting and conventional salvage logging, we positioned our
215 permanent 50 m survey plots in the same spatial configuration as for the logged areas subject
216 to the variable retention harvesting and salvage logging experiments.

217 ***Bird life history attributes***

218 We compiled data on bird species traits to explore relationships between species'
219 identities on sites subject to different kinds of disturbances and particular kinds of life-history
220 attributes (see Supporting Information Table S1; Lindenmayer *et al.* 2018). We summarized

221 data on body mass and life history traits (movement, diet, and foraging substrate) (Handbook
222 of Australian and New Zealand Birds 1990-2007; BirdLife Australia 2014). These traits are
223 thought to reflect the ability of species to respond to environmental change (Luck *et al.*
224 2012).

225 *Statistical analyses*

226 We fitted hierarchical generalized linear models (HGLMs) (Lee, Nelder & Pawitan
227 2006) to our data on bird species richness using quasi-Poisson distributions with a
228 logarithmic link and a gamma distribution with a logarithmic link for random site effects (see
229 Bolker *et al.* 2009). We used a logarithmic link for the fixed effects because we considered
230 that the effects would be approximately multiplicative. We used the conjugate distribution for
231 the random effects for ease of computation and interpretation.

232 We used Wald tests to quantify the significance of terms included in the HGLMs. We
233 fitted models which included the disturbance categories as a single factor together with the
234 interaction with the logarithm of the number of years since the 2009 fire plus one, as well as
235 models in which we treated burn severity, the logging treatment and the study identity as
236 separate factors.

237 Our data for individual species were detection frequencies; that is, the number of
238 individual point counts at a site (out of a maximum of six in any given year – 3 plots per site,
239 surveyed twice by a different observer on a different day) in which a given species was
240 recorded. We fitted hierarchical generalized linear models to detection frequency data for
241 individual species. We used a quasi-binomial distribution with a logit link and a beta-
242 distribution with a logit link for the random site effect. This model assumes that fixed effects
243 are additive on the log odds scale and, as for species richness, we used the conjugate
244 distribution for the random effects. We restricted our analyses to the 22 individual species for

245 which there were detections for 40 or more site-year combinations and at least 60 detections
246 in total (Table S2). Species with fewer detections than this had insufficient data to provide
247 reliable results.

248 We used canonical correspondence analysis (ter Braak 1986; Greenacre 2007) to
249 investigate the effects of disturbance and year on the species assemblage. To avoid distortion
250 of our results by relatively rare species, only species with more than 20 detections (N=35)
251 were included in canonical correspondence analysis. We fitted linear regressions of the
252 resulting species scores on a number of bird life history characteristics. We also tested the
253 effect of year and disturbance in the year by disturbance scores using the interaction as the
254 error term.

255 We completed statistical analyses using Genstat for Windows Release 18.2 (VSN
256 International 2015) and R version 3.2.2 (R Core Team 2016).

257 **RESULTS**

258 *Differences in species richness in response to different combinations of disturbance*

259 Our analyses revealed a highly significant ($\chi^2_9 = 206.2, P < 0.001$) gradient in bird
260 species richness with unburned and unlogged sites supporting significantly greater numbers
261 of species ($11.8 \pm 0.45\text{SE}$) relative to sites subject to conventional salvage logging operations
262 ($3.8 \pm 0.43\text{SE}$) (Fig. 3). Values for mean bird species richness in other categories of sites
263 were generally intermediate between the two extremes, with the highest on unlogged sites
264 (*viz*: those subject to low and high severity fire) and lowest where various kinds of logging
265 operations had occurred (Fig. 3). We found no statistical evidence to suggest the impacts of
266 salvage logging on bird species richness were significantly greater than an additive
267 combination of the effects of high severity fire alone plus and clearcut logging alone. That is,

268 our data contained no evidence of a significant interaction between high severity fire and
269 clearcut logging on bird species richness.

270 ***Temporal changes in species richness in response to different combinations of disturbance***

271 There were significant ($\chi^2_9 = 87.2, P < 0.001$) differences in the estimated annual rates
272 of change in mean bird species richness for the different disturbances (Fig. 3). There also was
273 evidence of a positive change in mean bird species richness on sites subject to high levels of
274 disturbance (Fig. 3).

275 We found marked interspecific differences in response to the range of disturbances in
276 our study (Fig. 4). The Crescent Honeyeater (*Phylidonyris pyrrhopterus*) (Fig. 4) ($\chi^2_9 = 24.5,$
277 $P = 0.004$), and the Eastern Yellow Robin (*Eopsaltria australis*) (Supporting Information Fig.
278 S1) ($\chi^2_9 = 25.6, P = 0.002$) were among the relatively few individual species which exhibited
279 a pattern of response similar to that identified for mean species richness (i.e. detection
280 frequency was highest on unlogged and unburnt sites and lowest on conventionally salvaged
281 logged sites (see Fig. 2). The detection frequency of the Flame Robin was highest on sites
282 burned at high severity (Fig. 4) ($\chi^2_9 = 55.0, P < 0.001$) whereas it was highest for the Eastern
283 Spinebill (*Acanthorhynchus tenuirostris*) ($\chi^2_9 = 51.0, P < 0.001$) on variable retention logged
284 areas where retained patches remained unburned (Fig. 4). Several individual species were
285 significantly affected by fire, with adverse effects identified for the Brown Thornbill
286 (*Acanthiza pusilla*) ($\chi^2_2 = 10.3, P = 0.006$), Crescent Honeyeater ($\chi^2_2 = 15.4, P < 0.001$),
287 Eastern Spinebill ($\chi^2_2 = 33.3, P < 0.001$), Eastern Whipbird (*Psophodes olivaceus*) ($\chi^2_2 =$
288 $11.9, P = 0.003$), Eastern Yellow Robin ($\chi^2_2 = 14.0, P < 0.001$), Rose Robin (*Petroica rosea*)
289 ($\chi^2_2 = 34.9, P < 0.001$), Rufous Fantail (*Rhipidura rufifrons*) ($\chi^2_2 = 18.8, P < 0.001$) (Fig. S1).
290 More complex effects were found for other species; for example, the detection frequencies of
291 the Silvereye (*Zosterops lateralis*) ($\chi^2_{82} = 15.6, P < 0.001$) and Golden Whistler

292 (*Pachycephala pectoralis*) ($\chi^2_2 = 36.2$, $P < 0.001$) were highest on severely burned sites and
293 lowest on sites subject to low severity fire (Fig. S1). As in the case of in quantifying salvage
294 logging impacts on bird species richness, we found no evidence of a significant interaction
295 between high severity fire and clearcut logging for any individual bird species.

296 ***Temporal changes in individual species in response to different combinations of*** 297 ***disturbance***

298 We identified marked inter-specific differences in post-disturbance temporal response
299 of bird species (Fig. 4, Fig. S1). The detection frequency of several bird species increased
300 significantly during the eight years of this study including the Brown Thornbill ($\chi^2_1 = 23.1$, P
301 < 0.001), Olive Whistler (*Pachycephala olivacea*) ($\chi^2_1 = 5.8$, $P = 0.016$), Pilotbird (*Pycnoptilus*
302 *floccosus*) ($\chi^2_1 = 15.4$, $P < 0.001$), and White-browed Scrub-wren (*Sericornis frontalis*) ($\chi^2_1 =$
303 23.1 , $P < 0.001$). The reverse effect was identified for the Rufous Fantail ($\chi^2_1 = 4.2$, P
304 $= 0.041$), and Spotted Pardalote (*Pardalotus punctatus*) (Fig. S1) ($\chi^2_1 = 5.4$, $P = 0.023$) (Fig.
305 S1).

306 ***Response of the bird assemblage to different combinations of disturbance***

307 In the canonical correspondence analysis, the site by year terms accounted for 20% of
308 the variation, and the first two components accounted for 4.5% and 2.0% of the variation
309 respectively. This suggests that factors other than disturbance have a major effect on species
310 composition. A plot of the types of disturbance as represented by the first two components of
311 the canonical correspondence analysis averaged over years was characterised by a gradient
312 from severely burnt sites in the top left to unburnt sites in the bottom right of the diagram
313 (Fig. 5). A second axis from the canonical correspondence analysis represented a somewhat
314 weaker gradient from logged to unlogged forest (Fig. 5). Fig. S2 shows the locations in the
315 first two dimensions for the 35 most common individual bird species and it suggests the

316 composition of the bird assemblage is related primarily to fire. Two species in particular
317 respond positively to fire, the Flame Robin and the Superb Fairy Wren. In addition, we
318 identified significant relationships between the second component of the canonical
319 correspondence analysis and life history attributes which included positive effects on the
320 component scores of nest height ($F_{1,33} = 5.6$, $P = 0.024$), wing length ($F_{1,33} = 5.3$ $P = 0.028$)
321 and dispersal ratio ($F_{1,32} = 5.4$, $P = 0.027$). This analyses indicated that bird species which
322 nested at greater heights above the ground, were larger, or were more mobile were more
323 likely to occur in unlogged forest.

324 **DISCUSSION**

325 *Bird responses to different combinations of disturbance*

326 The first key question in our study was: *Are birds affected by different combinations*
327 *of natural and human disturbance?* Consistent with predictions at the outset of this
328 investigation (see Fig. 1), we uncovered strong evidence of a gradient in bird species richness
329 congruent with differences in the increasing intensity of disturbance from unlogged, unburnt
330 forest through to conventionally salvage logged forest (Fig. 1 and Fig. 3). Conventionally
331 salvage logged sites supported approximately 25% of the levels of bird species richness
332 found on unlogged, unburned sites with such differences characterizing our study not only at
333 its inception in 2009 but also eight years later (Fig. 3).

334 In comparison with unburned and unlogged sites, we found that levels of bird species
335 richness were highest in areas with increased amounts of the original stand remaining after
336 disturbance, both following fire (i.e. stands burned at low severity support more of the
337 original stand relative to stands burned at high severity), and logging (where variable
338 retention harvesting methods maintain more of the original stand compared to clearcutting)
339 (Fig. 3). Areas subject to clearcutting and salvage logging supported fewer bird species than

340 stands where variable retention harvesting was employed. This result was broadly consistent
341 with the findings of other empirical studies that have explored bird responses across a range
342 of kinds of disturbance (e.g. Barlow *et al.* 2006) as well as global meta-analyses on variable
343 retention harvesting systems which demonstrated that species richness is generally greater
344 with increasingly levels of stand retention (Fedrowitz *et al.* 2014; Thorn *et al.* 2017). Across
345 the spectrum of sites in our study, stands burned at low or high severity supported higher bird
346 species richness than sites subject to variable retention harvesting (including those that were
347 not subsequently burned as well as those that were burned in 2009) (Fig. 3). Thus, our results
348 for bird species richness indicate that all forms of logging reduced bird species richness
349 relative to that quantified for both burned (but unlogged) sites as well as unburned and
350 unlogged sites (Fig. 3).

351 We suggest that the significant reduction in bird species richness on sites subject to
352 the most severe form of perturbation (i.e. conventional salvage logging) is likely due to
353 changes in vegetation plant species composition, loss of diversity and reduction in other key
354 stand structural elements (e.g. large old trees) typically associated with this form of
355 harvesting (e.g. Foster & Orwig 2006; D'Amato *et al.* 2011; Blair *et al.* 2016; Fraver *et al.*
356 2017; Leverkus & Castro 2017).

357 The pattern we identified for species richness was not replicated for the detection
358 frequencies of most individual bird species. Rather, we found evidence of highly species-
359 specific responses to disturbance (Fig. 4, Fig. S1) which highlights the importance of a
360 broader examination of relationships between the intensity of disturbance and bird life history
361 relationships as outlined below.

362 ***Temporal changes in individual species responses to different combinations of disturbance***

363 At the outset of this investigation, we predicted the recovery of bird species richness
364 would be slowest on sites subject to the most severe kinds of disturbance (Fig. 1). We found
365 that the greatest rate of post-disturbance recovery in species richness was on sites subject to
366 high severity fire (Fig. 3). We acknowledge that rates of recovery are not independent of the
367 degree of reduction in species richness after initial disturbance. That is, there will be limited
368 “recovery” on unburnt and unlogged sites because there was never a decline. Rapid recovery
369 in species richness on sites subject to high severity fire is, in part, a function of the substantial
370 initial reduction in species richness at the time of disturbance, although overall richness still
371 did not approach that of unburnt unlogged sites. Part of the explanation for relatively rapid
372 recovery may be related to high-severity fire that leads to dense natural regeneration around
373 dead trees from the previous fire-killed stand (Blair *et al.* 2016; Smith *et al.* 2016). Stands
374 characterized by rapid regeneration in vegetation structure coupled with numerous dead and
375 burned standing trees may, in turn, provide an array of suitable habitat niches for a range of
376 bird species. Notably, such patterns of positive response in bird species richness were not as
377 pronounced on logged sites. This included areas subject to salvage logging (both
378 conventional salvage logging and those subject to salvage logging but with stand retention) as
379 well as sites which had been conventionally clearcut or subject to variable retention
380 harvesting system (Fig. 3). This suggests that all forms of logging impair the rate of bird
381 recovery relative to that quantified for sites subject to high severity fire. Notably, there might
382 there be an upper bound on recovery rate following wildfire if logging in the surrounding
383 burned forest reduces source populations of birds, akin to the landscape trap hypothesis that
384 has been proposed for Mountain Ash forests (Lindenmayer *et al.* 2011). However, detailed
385 medium to long-term source-sink studies would be required to quantify such risks to bird
386 population recovery (if they exist).

387 ***Limitations of the study***

388 We acknowledge that there some limitations to our study. First, limited data prevented
389 us from analyzing results for rare species, although we recognize there are very few bird
390 species of conservation concern in Mountain Ash forests. For example, the Flame Robin
391 (which is an early successional responder in our study system) is under threat in other
392 Australian ecosystems (Montague-Drake, Lindenmayer & Cunningham 2009). A second
393 limitation was that we combined datasets from three different studies. However, we included
394 study identity in the modeling and the same field staff employed similar sampling methods
395 within one forest type and the same aged forest in that forest type.

396 ***Disturbance and bird life history relationships***

397 Consistent with the performance filtering hypothesis and functional diversity theory
398 (Mouillot *et al.* 2012; Aubin *et al.* 2016), we found evidence that disturbance (particularly
399 fire) affected particular functional groups of birds (and therefore the composition of the bird
400 assemblage). Birds which nested at greater heights in the vegetation, or were larger, or were
401 less mobile were more likely to be associated with unburned forest. The reasons for these
402 results remain unclear. However, it is likely that the short regenerating trees are unsuitable for
403 birds that nest at greater heights. In addition, less mobile (e.g. resident) species may take a
404 prolonged period to recolonize intensively perturbed areas from which they have previously
405 been displaced.

406 ***Implications for conservation and management***

407 Our data suggest that both clearcutting and variable retention harvesting have
408 different effects on birds relative to wildfire (including high-severity fire). The most intense
409 forms of disturbance examined (conventional salvage logging with no island retention) led to
410 the most substantial reduction in bird species richness and also impaired post-disturbance
411 recovery in bird species richness (Fig. 3). Earlier work in Mountain Ash forests highlighted

412 the extent to which salvage logging operations can alter potential nesting and foraging habitat
413 for other groups of animals like arboreal marsupials such as through depleting key elements
414 of stand structure like large old hollow-bearing trees (Lindenmayer & Ough 2006) and
415 resprouting understorey plants (e.g. tree ferns) (Blair *et al.* 2016). These impacts suggest a
416 need to limit the amount of salvage logging in the event of future high-severity wildfires in
417 Mountain Ash forests.

418 There have been proposals to increasingly shift away from clearcutting to retention
419 harvesting in many forest types globally (Gustafsson *et al.* 2012). The results of this study
420 suggest that retention harvesting policies and practices need to be extended beyond green
421 (previously undisturbed) forests to include those that are naturally disturbed (e.g. by fire) and
422 potentially subject to salvage logging. In addition, we suggest it is critically important to
423 ensure that burned areas remain unlogged and are included in the design and implementation
424 of reserves so that protected areas capture the variability of forest conditions and bird
425 communities in a manner that allows for recovery from natural disturbances to proceed
426 unimpeded by post-fire timber harvesting (see DellaSala *et al.* 2015; DellaSala *et al.* 2017).

427 **AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS**

428 DBL, LM and DB conceived the ideas, designed methodology, and collected the data; JW
429 and DBL analysed the data; DBL led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed
430 critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

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436 birds. Comments from Jos Barlow, Sharif Mukul, Dominick DellaSala and three anonymous
437 referees greatly improved an earlier version of the paper.

438 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

439 Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository doi:10.5061/dryad.24t5j04 (Lindenmayer
440 *et al.* 2018).

441 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

442 **Table S1.** Summary of the life history and morphological traits used in the analysis, and the
443 relationship of these traits with environmental change.

444 **Table S2.** Number of detections and number of site x year combinations with birds present
445 for the most common species.

446 **Fig. S1.** Estimated effects of disturbance on percentage detection frequency in 2009 and 2016
447 for 18 individual bird species.

448 **Fig. S2.** First two components from canonical correspondence analysis showing locations in
449 multi-dimensional space for the 35 most common bird species.

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- 625

626 **Fig. 1. Part A.** Conceptual model of types of fire and logging-related disturbances and
627 predicted levels of bird species richness in the Mountain Ash forests of the Central Highlands
628 of Victoria, south-eastern Australia. The spectrum of site types include the *de facto*
629 benchmark unlogged and unburned sites (denoted UD) as the least disturbed areas through to
630 our hypothesized most severely disturbed sites (salvage logged [SC]), salvage logged sites
631 with island retention [denoted SI]). Conventional clearcut areas and sites subject to variable
632 retention harvesting are denoted CC and VR, respectively. **Part B.** Postulated temporal
633 responses in bird species richness in relation to different types of fire and logging-related
634 disturbances

635 **Fig. 2.** The location of the study region in the Central Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern
636 Australia.

637 **Fig. 3.** Estimated bird species richness in 2009 and 2016 on sites subject to different kinds of
638 disturbance ranging from sites that were unburned and unlogged (UD) to sites subject to
639 conventional salvage logging following the 2009 wildfire (denoted SC). Other codes for site
640 types are given in Table 1 and Fig. 1. The lines above the bars in the figure show the
641 estimated standard errors of the difference between 2009 and 2016 for each of the
642 disturbances. Bird surveys were completed in each year from 2009 and species richness is
643 shown only for the start (2009) and end (2016) of the study.

644 **Fig. 4.** Estimated effects of disturbance on percentage detection frequency in 2009 and 2016
645 for five individual bird species. Response patterns for other individual species of birds are
646 shown in Fig. S1 in the supplementary material. The lines above the bars in the figure show
647 the estimated standard errors of the difference between 2009 and 2016 for each of the
648 disturbances. Bird surveys were completed in each year from 2009 and a subset of individual
649 species responses are shown only for the start (2009) and end (2016) of the study.

650 **Fig. 5.** First two components from canonical correspondence analysis showing scores (and
651 therefore locations in multi-dimensional space) for the years in this study and ten types of
652 disturbance examined in this study (see Table 1).

653

654

655 **Table 1.** Summary of the broad site types in the study of bird responses to different
 656 combinations of disturbances in the Mountain Ash forests of the Central Highlands of
 657 Victoria, south-eastern Australia. All sites were regrowth from the 1939 wildfires in 2009
 658 when parts of the study region were burned or when they were logged. Standardizing the age
 659 class in the study avoided confounding between stand age effects, biotic responses, and
 660 various kinds and combinations of disturbances. Not all sites could be surveyed in any given
 661 year and the final column in the table provides information on the number of surveys of sites
 662 across the duration of the study.

Site type	Description and associated citations	Abbreviation	No. of sites	No. of site x year combinations
Undisturbed (Unlogged, unburned)	Forest regenerating after the 1939 wildfires which have remained unlogged and unburned since then	UD	26	171
Low severity fire*	1939 regrowth forest that was burned at low severity in the 2009 fire and was not subject to subsequent salvage logging	LS	8	55
High severity fire*	1939 regrowth forest that was burned at high severity in the 2009 fire but was not subject to subsequent salvage logging	HS	20	77

Variable retention harvesting with island retention, no wildfire in 2009	1939 regrowth forest that was subject to variable retention harvesting between 2006 and 2009 in which islands of forest of 0.5-1.5 ha in size were retained with 15-40 ha cutblocks.	VR	4	20
Conventionally clearcut forest, (with no island retention and no wildfire in 2009)	1939 regrowth forest that was subject to clearcutting between 2006 and 2009 and not subject to wildfire in 2009	CC	2	5
Conventionally clearcut forest, high severity fire in 2009	1939 regrowth forest that was subject to clearcutting between 2006 and 2009, but then burned at high severity in 2009 fires	CC+HS	1	4
Variable retention harvesting with island retention, low severity fire in 2009	1939 regrowth forest that was subject to variable retention harvesting between 2006 and 2009 in which islands of forest of 0.5-1 ha in size were retained with 15-40 ha cutblocks but then burned at low severity in the 2009 fires	VR+LS	3	11

Variable retention harvesting with island retention, high severity fire in 2009	1939 regrowth forest that was subject to variable retention harvesting between 2006 and 2009 in which islands of forest of 0.5-1 ha in size were retained with 15-40 ha cutblocks but then burned at high severity in the 2009 fires	VR+HS	5	24
Conventional salvage logging	1939 regrowth forest that was burned at high severity in the 2009 fires and subject to conventional salvage logging in which the entire damaged stand was clearcut	SC	7	40
Modified salvage logging with island retention	1939 regrowth forest that was burned at high severity in 2009 and then subject to modified salvage logging in which islands of burned forest of 0.5-1 ha in size were retained s	SI	13	64

663 *Fire severity was determined from on-the-ground measurements of vegetation 1-2 months

664 directly following the 2009 fire (see text).

665

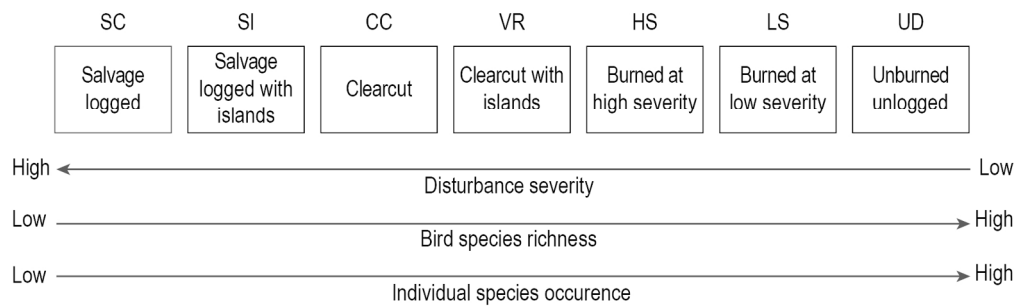


Fig. 1. Part A. Conceptual model of types of fire and logging-related disturbances and predicted levels of bird species richness in the Mountain Ash forests of the Central Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern Australia. The spectrum of site types include the de facto benchmark unlogged and unburned sites (denoted UD) as the least disturbed areas through to our hypothesized most severely disturbed sites (salvage logged [SC]), salvage logged sites with island retention [denoted SI]). Conventional clearcut areas and sites subject to variable retention harvesting are denoted CC and VR, respectively. Part B. Postulated temporal responses in bird species richness in relation to different types of fire and logging-related disturbances

154x46mm (300 x 300 DPI)

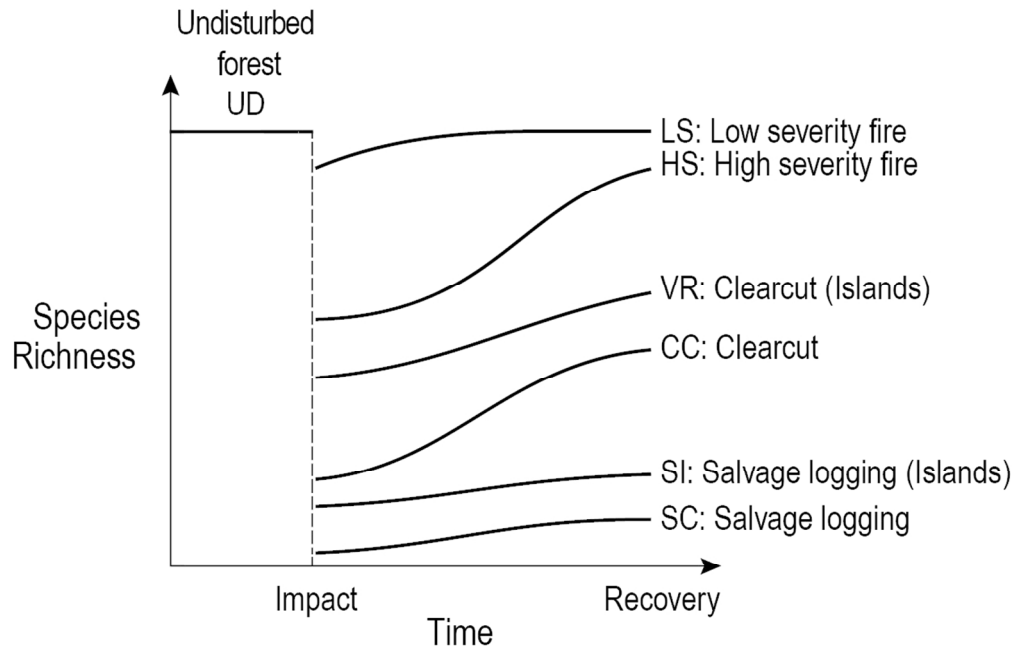


Fig. 1. Part A. Conceptual model of types of fire and logging-related disturbances and predicted levels of bird species richness in the Mountain Ash forests of the Central Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern Australia. The spectrum of site types include the de facto benchmark unlogged and unburned sites (denoted UD) as the least disturbed areas through to our hypothesized most severely disturbed sites (salvage logged [SC]), salvage logged sites with island retention [denoted SI]). Conventional clearcut areas and sites subject to variable retention harvesting are denoted CC and VR, respectively. Part B. Postulated temporal responses in bird species richness in relation to different types of fire and logging-related disturbances

104x68mm (300 x 300 DPI)

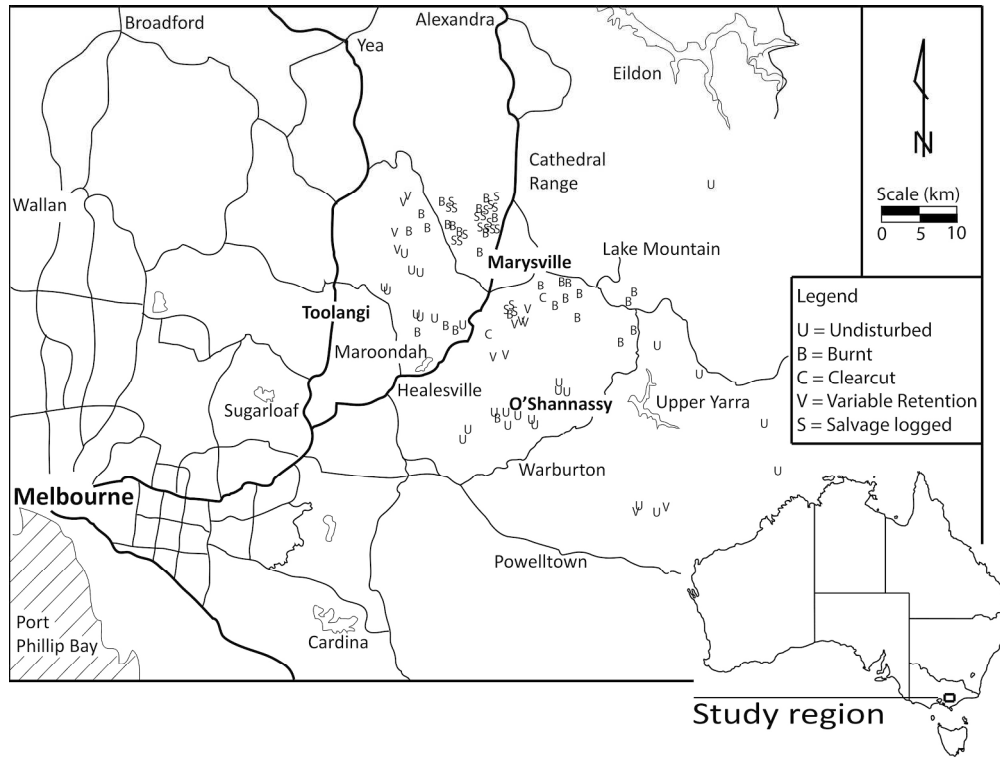


Fig. 2. The location of the study region in the Central Highlands of Victoria, south-eastern Australia.

211x159mm (300 x 300 DPI)

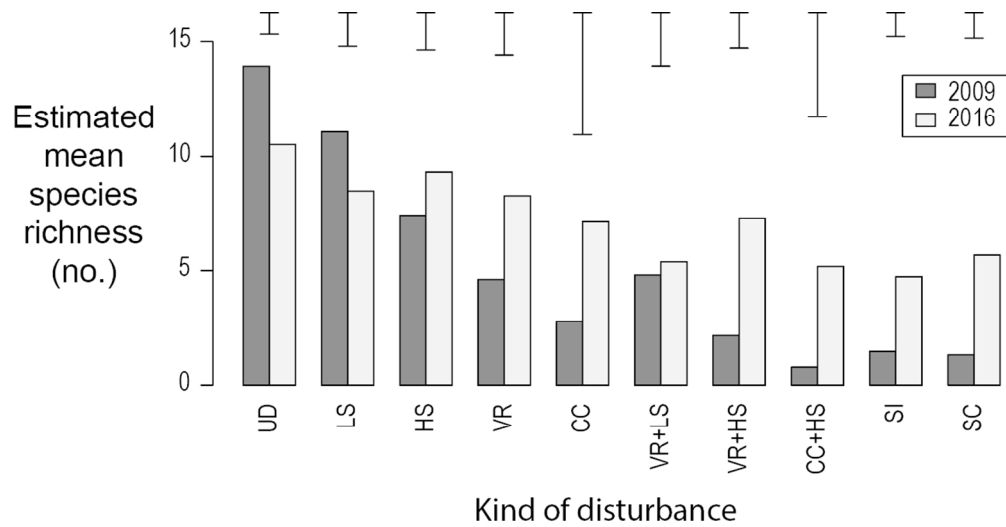


Fig. 3. Estimated bird species richness in 2009 and 2016 on sites subject to different kinds of disturbance ranging from sites that were unburned and unlogged (UD) to sites subject to conventional salvage logging following the 2009 wildfire (denoted SC). Other codes for site types are given in Table 1 and Fig. 1. The lines above the bars in the figure show the estimated standard errors of the difference between 2009 and 2016 for each of the disturbances. Bird surveys were completed in each year from 2009 and species richness is shown only for the start (2009) and end (2016) of the study.

109x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)

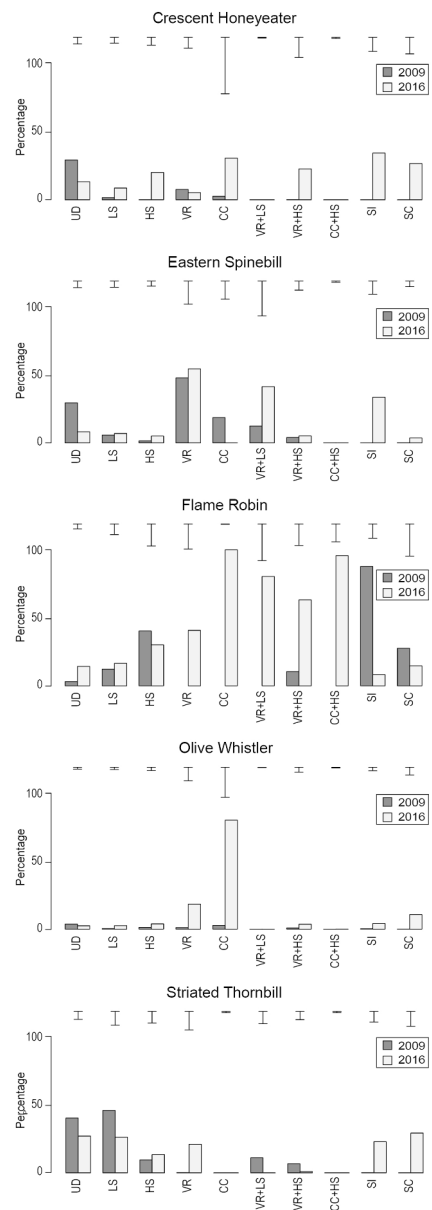


Fig. 4. Estimated effects of disturbance on percentage detection frequency in 2009 and 2016 for five individual bird species. Response patterns for other individual species of birds are shown in Fig. S1 in the supplementary material. The lines above the bars in the figure show the estimated standard errors of the difference between 2009 and 2016 for each of the disturbances. Bird surveys were completed in each year from 2009 and a subset of individual species responses are shown only for the start (2009) and end (2016) of the study.

92x264mm (300 x 300 DPI)

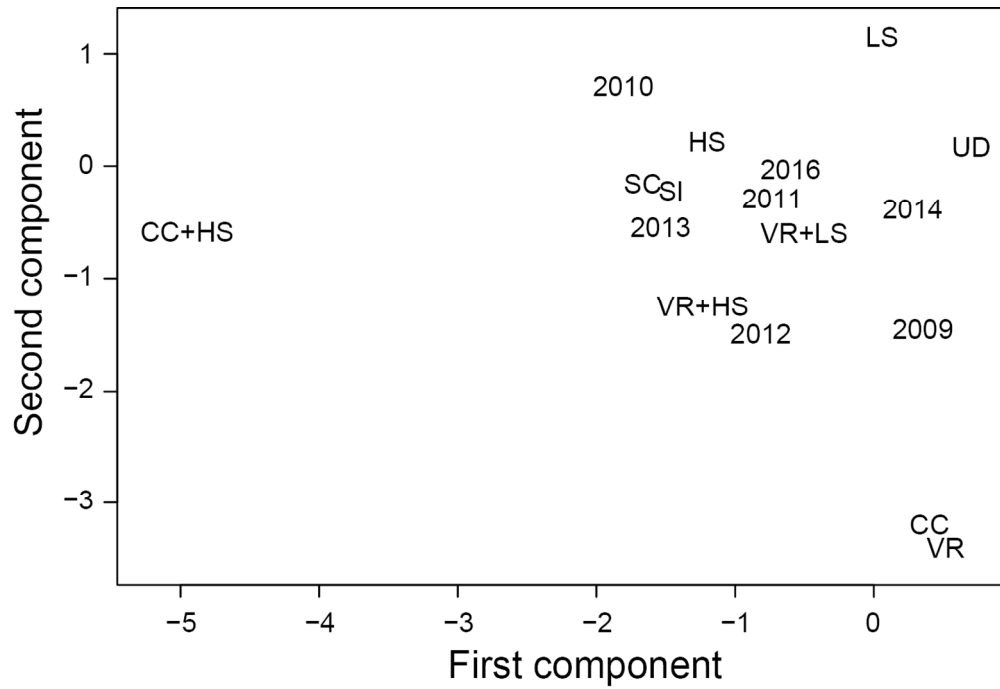


Fig. 5. First two components from canonical correspondence analysis showing scores (and therefore locations in multi-dimensional space) for the years in this study and ten types of disturbance examined in this study (see Table 1).

129x88mm (300 x 300 DPI)

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Table S1. Summary of the life history and morphological traits used in the analysis, and the relationship of these traits with environmental change. *

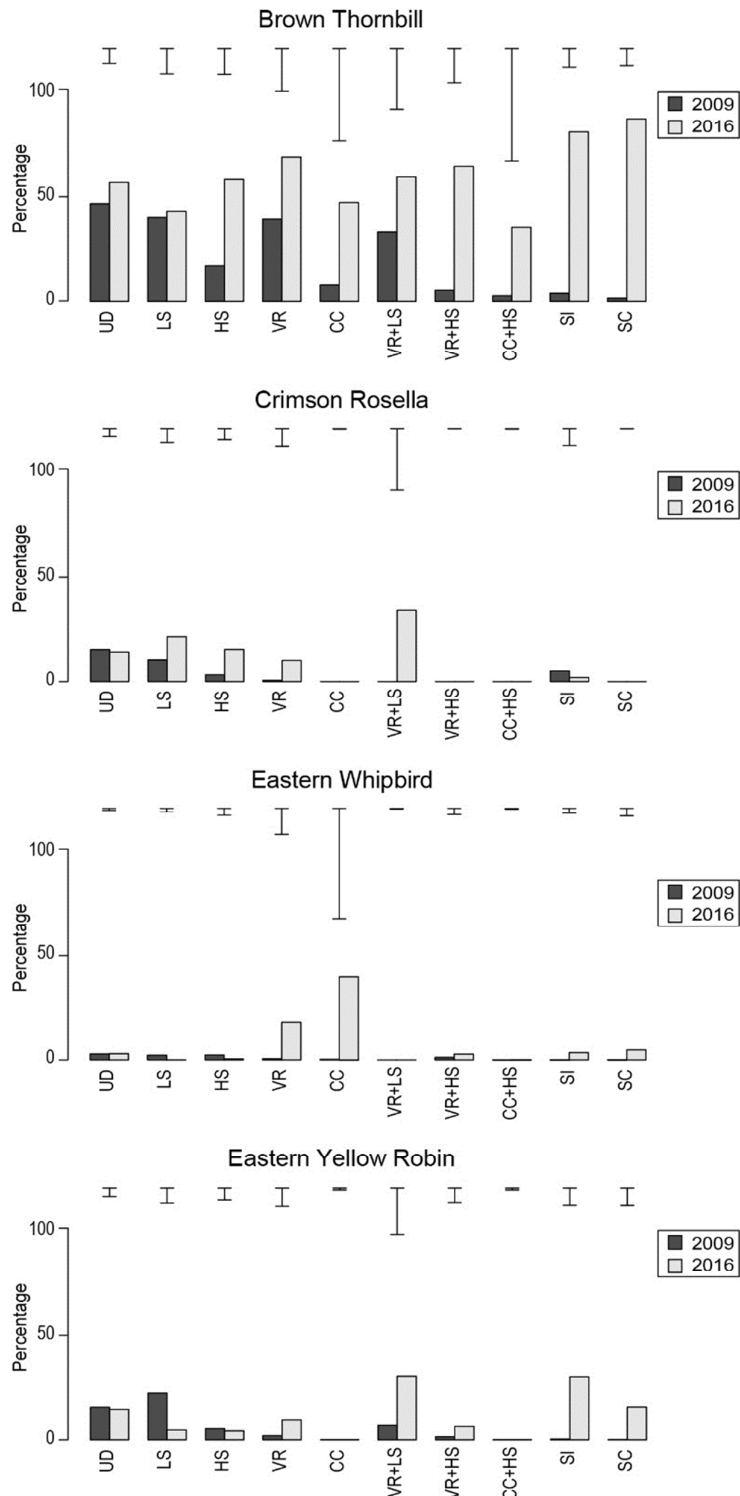
Trait	Levels/Definition	Relationship with environmental change*
Habitat	Forest, Open-woodland	Habitat generalists appear more resilient to environmental change as they have greater habitat use options.
Diet	Invertebrates, Nectar, Seeds, Varied	Influences all aspects of foraging behaviour. Birds with specialised diets are susceptible to environmental change that reduces primary diet.
Foraging substrate	Canopy, Understorey, Ground	Impacts all aspects of resource use by birds. Species with particular foraging behaviours may be impacted by environmental change.
Social system	Large flocks, Small flocks or solitary	Habitat loss and modification can disrupt social dynamics.
Reproductive effort	Clutch size multiplied by number of broods per season	Species with low reproductive rates (e.g. small clutch size, infrequent breeding and low annual productivity) and low survival rates are less resilient to environmental change (i.e. have a reduced capacity to recover from perturbations).
Migratory status	Dispersal/nomadic, Migratory, Sedentary	Birds with limited dispersal capacity (e.g. short distances or movements confined to certain vegetation types) may suffer more from reduced landscape connectivity.
Body mass	Log (body mass)	Strongly relates to a range of other traits in birds including metabolic rate, foraging behaviour, longevity and home-range size.
Wing morphology	Residuals from the linear regression: $\log(\text{body mass}) \sim \log(\text{wing length})$	Aligned with movement capacity, which in turn influences resource use and the ability to respond to environmental change that disrupts landscape connectivity or reduces resource density.
Dispersal ratio	Cube root of the relationship between body mass and wing length	Linked with movement capacity.

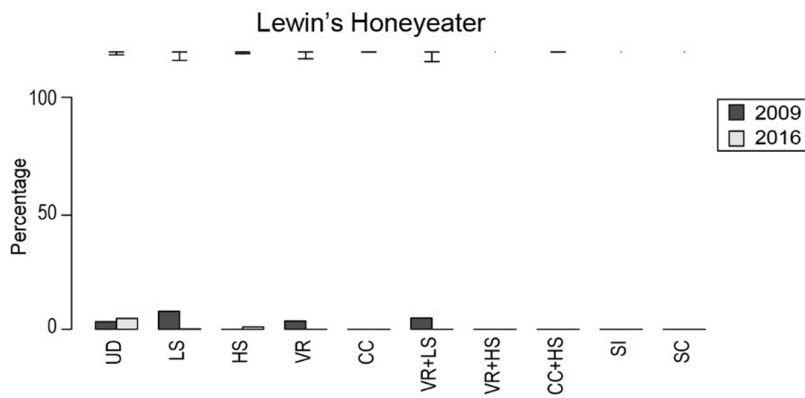
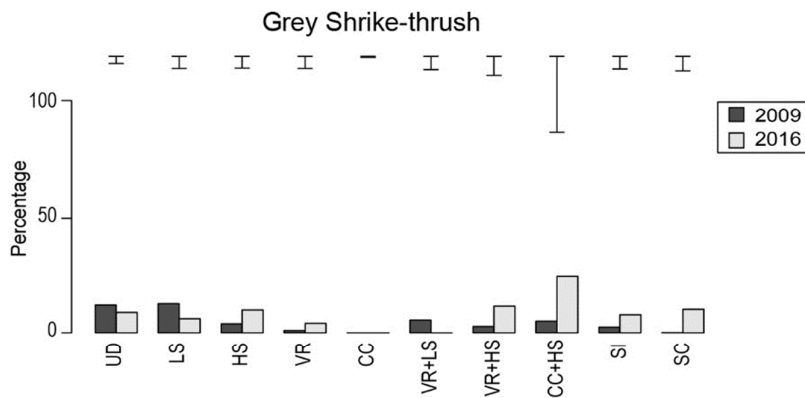
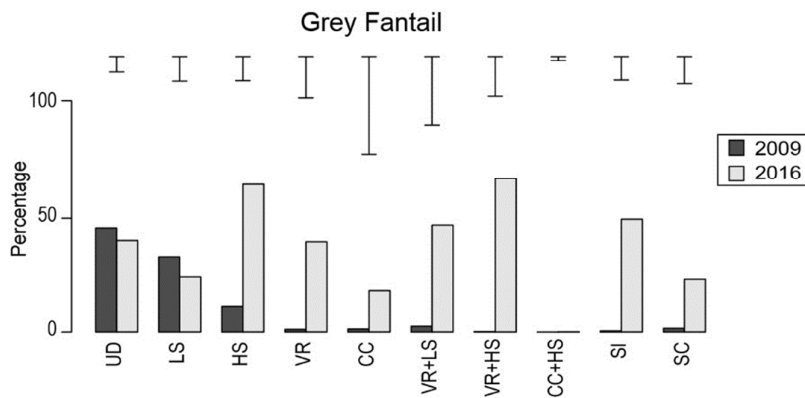
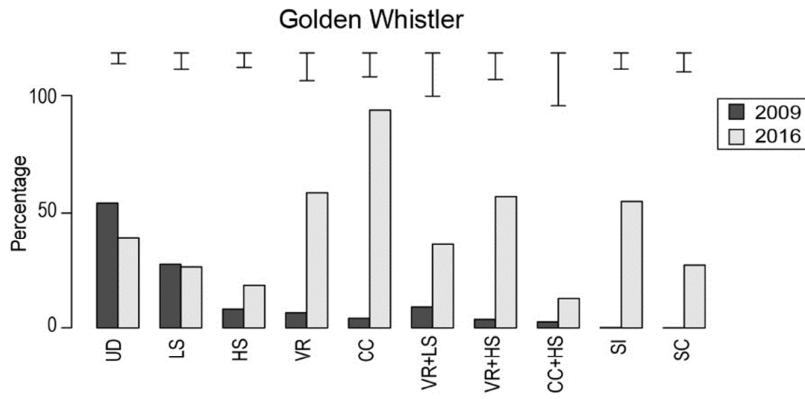
* Modified from Luck, G., Lavorel, S., McIntyre, S. & Lumb, K. (2012) Improving the application of vertebrate trait-based frameworks to the study of ecosystem services. *Journal of Animal Ecology*, **81**, 1065-1076.

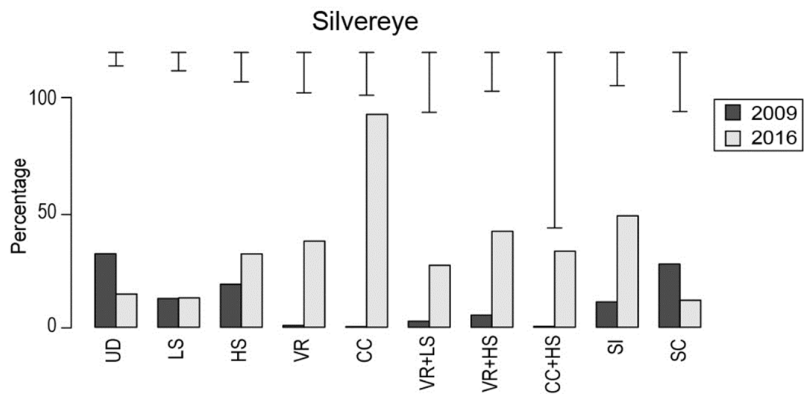
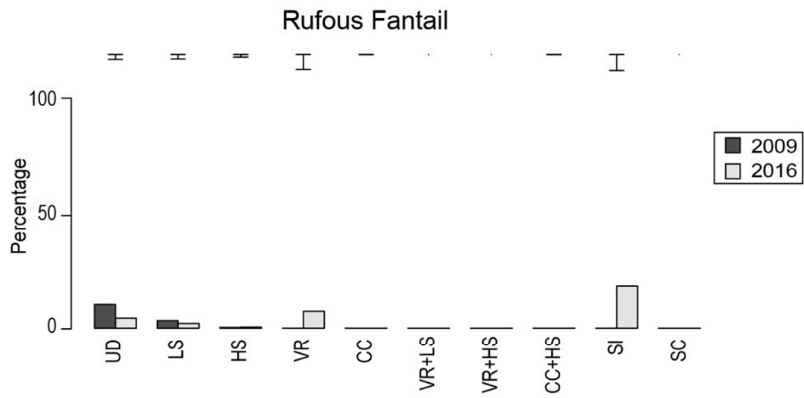
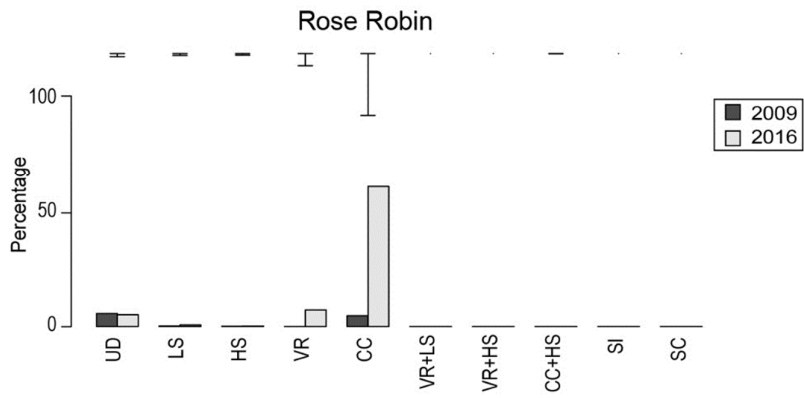
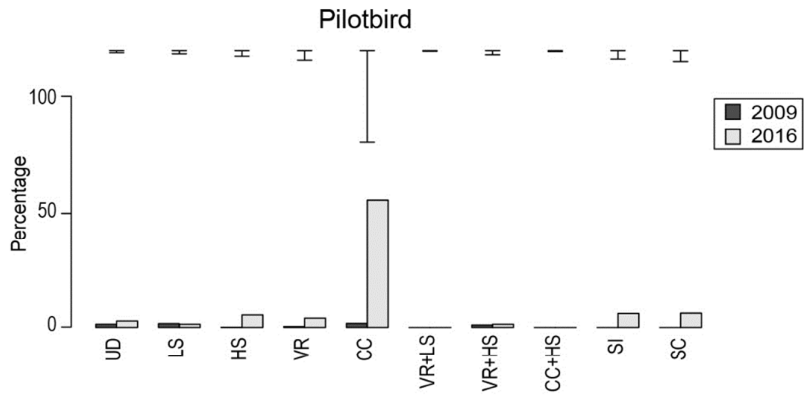
Table S2. Number of detections and number of site x year combinations with birds present for the most common species. Acronyms correspond to those used in canonical correspondence analysis in Fig. S2.

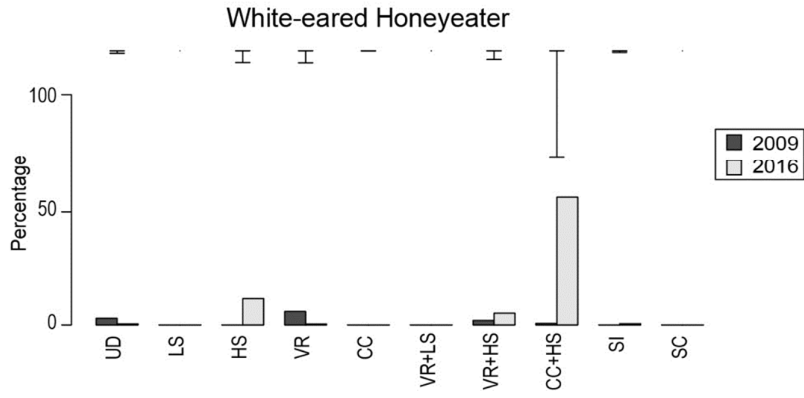
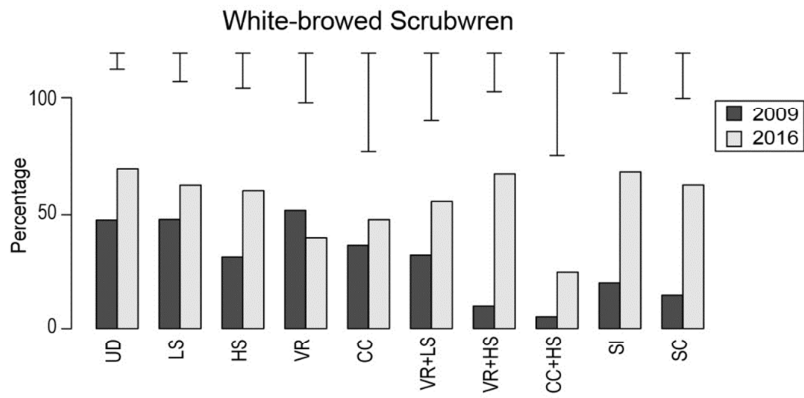
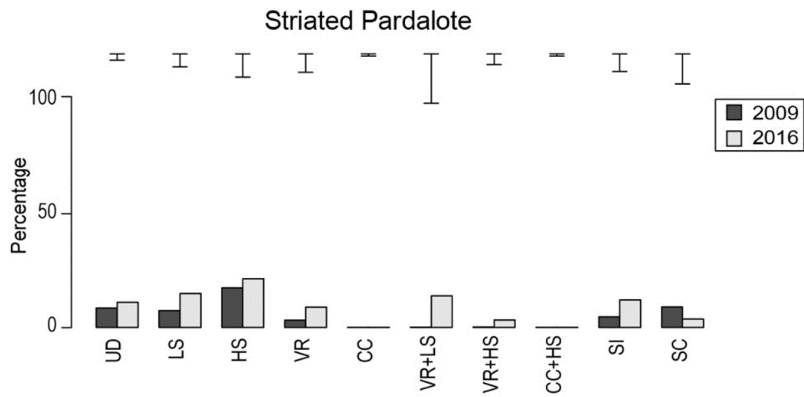
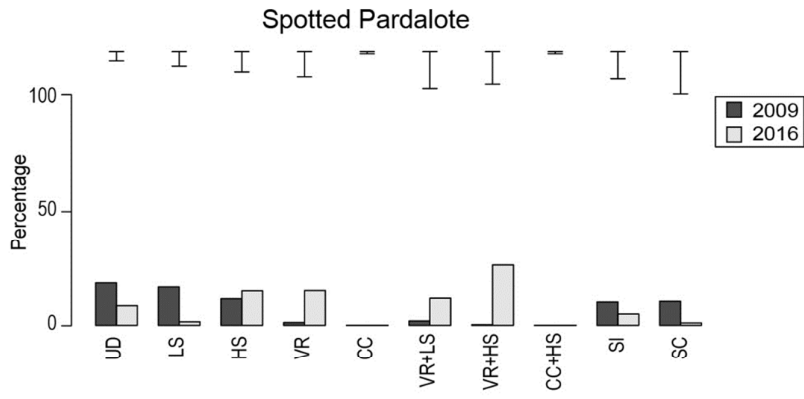
Species	Acronym	Scientific name	No. of detections	Site x Year combinations
White-browed Scrubwren	wbsw	<i>Sericornis frontalis</i>	1206	407
Brown Thornbill	btb	<i>Acanthiza pusilla</i>	1056	400
Grey Fantail	gfan	<i>Rhipidura albiscapa</i>	774	297
Golden Whistler	gw	<i>Pachycephala pectoralis</i>	691	281
Striated Thornbill	stb	<i>Acanthiza lineata</i>	511	240
Silvereye	seye	<i>Zosterops lateralis</i>	475	249
Flame Robin	frob	<i>Petroica phoenicea</i>	380	201
Crescent Honeyeater	che	<i>Phylidonyris pyrrhopterus</i>	311	145
Eastern Spinebill	esb	<i>Acanthorhynchus tenuirostris</i>	276	145
Striated Pardalote	stp	<i>Pardalotus striatus</i>	270	149
Crimson Rosella	cro	<i>Pardalotus striatus</i>	249	148
Eastern Yellow Robin	eyr	<i>Eopsaltria australis</i>	248	155
Spotted Pardalote	spp	<i>Pardalotus punctatus</i>	226	137
Grey Shrike-thrush	gst	<i>Colluricincla harmonica</i>	200	135
Yellow-faced Honeyeater	yfhe	<i>Caligavis chrysops</i>	144	89
Rufous Fantail	rft	<i>Rhipidura rufifrons</i>	111	66
White-throated Treecreeper	wttc	<i>Cormobates leucophaea</i>	109	79
Rose Robin	rrob	<i>Petroica rosea</i>	82	55
Eastern Whipbird	ewb	<i>Psophodes olivaceus</i>	80	50
White-eared Honeyeater	wehe	<i>Nesoptilotis leucotis</i>	80	44
Pilotbird	pb	<i>Pycnoptilus floccosus</i>	78	52
Olive Whistler	ow	<i>Pachycephala olivacea</i>	76	55
Lewin's Honeyeater	lhe	<i>Meliphaga lewinii</i>	62	46
Brown-headed Honeyeater	bhhe	<i>Melithreptus brevirostris</i>	59	46
Fan-tailed Cuckoo	ftc	<i>Cacomantis flabelliformis</i>	56	39
Superb Fairy-wren	sfw	<i>Malurus cyaneus</i>	56	39
Shining Bronze-Cuckoo	sbc	<i>Chalcites lucidus</i>	51	40
White-naped Honeyeater	wnhe	<i>Melithreptus lunatus</i>	40	21
Superb Lyrebird	slb	<i>Menura novaehollandiae</i>	37	28
Pied Currawong	pew	<i>Strepera graculina</i>	33	28
Brush Cuckoo	brc	<i>Cacomantis variolosus</i>	31	24
Pink Robin	prob	<i>Petroica rodinogaster</i>	31	23
Grey Currawong	gew	<i>Strepera versicolor</i>	29	25
Laughing Kookaburra	lkook	<i>Dacelo novaeguineae</i>	26	21
Red Wattlebird	rw	<i>Anthochaera carunculata</i>	23	21

Fig. S1. Estimated effects of disturbance on percentage detection frequency in 2009 and 2016 for 18 individual bird species. The lines above the bars in the figure show the estimated standard errors of the difference between 2009 and 2016 for each of the disturbances. Bird surveys were completed in each year from 2009 and a subset of individual species responses are shown only for the start (2009) and end (2016) of the study.









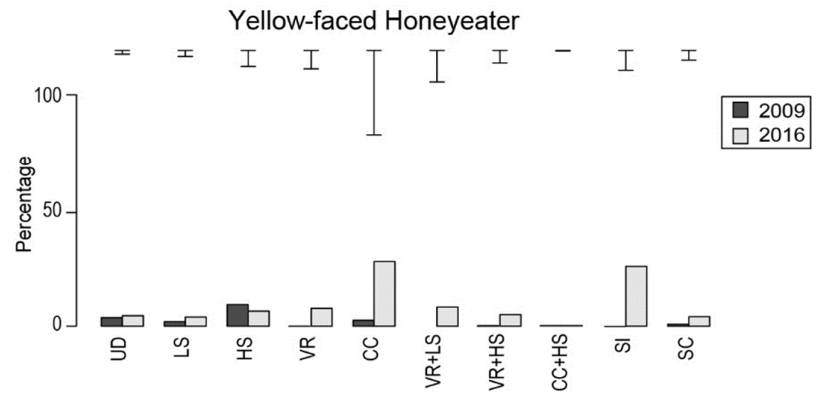
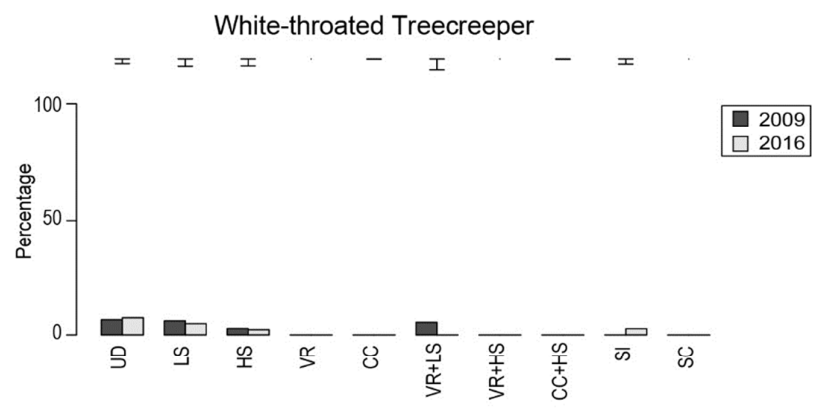


Fig. S2. First two components from canonical correspondence analysis showing locations in multi-dimensional space for the 35 most common bird species. Acronyms for particular bird species are given in Table S2.

